DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 031 691

AL 001 784

By-Hok, Ruth

The Concept of "General-Specific" to TESOL Problems with Particular Attention to the Teaching of "the/a" and "some/any".

Pub Date Mar 69

Note-24p.; Paper given at the Third Annual TESOL Convention, Chicago, Illinois, March 5-8, 1969.

EDRS Price MF-$0.25 HC-$1.30

Descriptors-*Concept Formation, *Determiners (Languages), *English (Second Language), Fundamental Concepts, *Linguistic Theory, Nominals

The author discusses the grouping of meaning concepts into a system of the general and the specific as a logical and effective way of approaching language phenomena. Miller's utilization theory provides a model for setting up categories; Mandler's hierarchical adjustment, a model for establishing hierarchical order. The author hypothesizes a "repositioning" or refocusing process for using the categories. The ability to reposition our thinking permits us "logically" to let non-count concepts take on countability (the people of the world, the peoples of the world). After repositioning has taken place, we can then view a concept macroscopically as a category unto itself, or microscopically as a unit within a category, or as separate from other categories. Rules governing the occurrence of "the / a" are reduced to: (1) Count nouns in the singular must use "the" or "a". (2) Non-count nouns and plural count nouns may use "the" or nothing. (3) The choice between "the," "a," and nothing depends on the speaker's position (the category he is working from) and his view. Within the non-specific category of "some" and "any" there are units whose relations in turn are that of general and specific. Lessons should indicate that in the affirmative sentence, we usually speak in terms of parts (I want some pencils) rather than in terms of the whole (I want any pencils). (AMM)

EDO 31691

THE CONCEPT OF "GENERAL-SPECIFIC" TO TESOL PROBLEMS WITH PARTICULAR ATTENTION TO THE TEACHING OF THE/A AND SOME/ANY

Ruth Hok
English Language Institute
University of Michigan

In the New York Times Magazine Section for February 9, 1969, appears a report about one of our expert demographers who, concerned about the world's population, stated that "Somewhere in the world a woman gives birth to a child every thirty seconds." A man in his audience is said to have shouted "We must stop that woman!"

In the grammar of that account is illustrated what I would like to discuss here; viz., the grouping of meaning concepts into a system of the general and the specific as a logical and effective way of approaching language phenomena.

To start with a definition: By analogy,

General	is to	Specific	as
Genus	is to	Species (zoology, botany)	as
Universal	is to	Particular (logic)	as
Domain	is to	Individual (geometry)	as
Phoneme	is to	Allophone (phonology)	as
etc.			

The general-specific concept, as I intend it, is a manner of thinking in wholes, or in parts as they relate to wholes.[1] Going a step further, and thinking in terms of the broad view versus the restricted view, we might even say that

General	is to	Specific	as
Continuous	is to	Discrete (mathematics)	as
Ground	is to	Figure (Gestalt Psychology)	as
Macroscopic	is to	Microscopic (physics)	as
Indefinite	is to	Definite	
etc.			

AL 001 784

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

In my development, the terminology that I use is intended to be understood in the everyday sense, reflecting as little as possible the technical connotations of current schools of thought.[2] Nevertheless, if space permitted, it would be tempting to digress and trace the device as viewed through the Firthian terminology of "class" and "set"; and through the generative grammarians' "selection" and "category"; and the descriptivists' "Word Classes" and their "members"; not forgetting Pike's "particle, wave and field."

But more pertinent for our discussion here is the fact that in human psychology today, organizational variables have assumed a new importance-particularly in the area of human memory.[3] To quote from the work of George Mandler, "Memory and organization are not only correlated but organization is a necessary condition for memory."[4] Experimental work leads him even to wonder if there is such a thing as rote memory (except perhaps of the "repeat after me" variety);[5] his own subjects invariably imposed some kind of organization on whatever he asked them to learn for recall.

His experimental work appears to support his hypothesis that not only does memory not exist without organization but that the number 5 ± 2 determines the number of categories the human brain can remember as well as the number of items within each category. Basing his work in George Miller's unitization theory, he hypothesizes that these categories can be thought of as arranged in hierarchical fashion and he speculates that the limit to which these levels of 5 ± 2 "chunks" can in turn be arranged in 5 ± 2 "superchunks" - the limit to which these can be handled is 5^{5^5}. Calculated thus, he believes he has a reliable measure of the capacity of human memory.[6]

Of particular interest to us here is the type of category he discovers that his human subjects automatically established when faced with verbal

material to be remembered. It seems to be of the general-specific variety such as we are discussing. He reports:

> For example, a list may contain a 'furniture' cluster; the S recalls 'table' and 'chair', then recalls some other items, checks the list, and on seeing 'table' and 'chair' may then give additional items from the furniture category.[7]

And he concludes:

> If we are to investigate how organization develops, we must go to the developmental study of language, semantics, and verbal behavior. That is probably the only source that will tell us about the development of organizational schemas.[8]

It occurs to me that the trick is to find the original unit of 5±2 on which all knowledge - to follow Mandler's thinking - is hierarchically based. The Dewey Decimal system allows libraries to classify all of man's knowledge under ten headings so the problem does not seem unsolvable. It might, I believe, be attacked from another and, if you will, more primitive angle: Since the only verbal means we have of obtaining information about something is through the question words of Who, What, Where, When, etc., is it not plausible to assume that our knowledge is ultimately hierarchically organized in increasingly specific fashion from categories that are thus generally labeled?

A glance at the literature on the language acquisition of children would seem to support this analysis: Jean Piaget, for instance, says that (my translation):

> To understand how a small child thinks spontaneously, no method is more instructive than to inventory and analyze the questions he asks almost as soon as he speaks. Among these, the earliest are simply 'where' are the things he wants and 'what' are things called. Then at about the age of three and sometimes before comes the famous 'Why'.[9]

'When', the question of time, is a particularly intriguing one: The traditional definition of Noun does not include it. ('A noun is the name of a person, place, or thing.' Are the words 'afternoon', 'day', etc., according to this definition, things?) And how can be explained the fact that Dr. Kamii and Mrs. Radin in their work on underpriviliged pre-school age children report that they must teach that time has a beginning and an end, and that there are shorter periods and longer periods[10] - again the units of a category. (Parenthetically here, may I wonder what, if any, is the similarity in the mental makeup of Dr. Kamii's underprivileged children and Benjamin Whorf's Hopi Indians?)[11]

But setting up the categories and establishing them in hierarchical order is only the beginning; we must hypothesize a process for using them. This, I think, is to be found in the ability of the human mind to 'reposition' itself. The word 'focus' is not an unusual one in the literature[12] - but its meaning always seems to be 'the view from here'. The dimension that I suggest be added is 'the view from there'. It is this repositioning ability that allows us to use 'this Saturday' to apply to either the past Saturday or the future Saturday with sel-

dom any equivocation. It is thanks to this repositioning ability that we can think about the future and talk about the past and future of that future:[13]

> Next year I am going to live in New York where I expect to study law. By that time I will have finished my English course.

Similarly with the past:

> Last year I was living in New York where I was going to study law. By that time I had finished my English course.

And isn't it this ability to reposition our thinking that permits us 'logically' to let non-count concepts take on countability? Consider:

> The people of the world.
>
> The peoples of the world.
>
> I waited two eternities.
>
> This is one of the most unique things I've seen.

As we shall see, 'repositioning' has great bearing on our interpretation of the categories; after it has taken place, we can then view a concept macroscopically as a category unto itself; or microscopically as a unit within a category, or as separated from other categories.[14]

Organizing in this way the names of objects, actions and qualities will not perhaps strike my audience as spectacularly new however convenient, but applying the hypothesis and technique to the problems for instance that we find inherent to date in the use of 'the'/'a' and 'some'/'any' should, I believe, prove helpful.

The/A

Let us consider the so-called definite and indefinite articles. The grammar text that I am most familiar with (English Sentence Patterns developed at the University of Michigan's English Language Institute) reduces the matter quite neatly to the fact that sometimes you use 'a'; sometimes you use 'the'; and sometimes you use nothing; and concludes with a relatively short list of examples where nothing consistently occurs before the noun: the names of people, languages, streets, etc. This seems to be adequate information for the Germanic and Romance language speakers: in their languages articles abound; consequently, their main problem is to learn when to omit them. But this is little enough information for speakers of other languages to whom the article is a foreign concept altogether.

On the other hand, a text that appears to cover the full range of possibilities with 44 rules on the subject does not seem to be the answer either[15] because intuition tells us that these can surely be grouped in some fashion.

Dr. Sayo Yotsukura in her 'Structural Analysis of the Usage of Articles in English'[16] arrived at 38 formulae, 17 of which could be said to hold in a consistent fashion. [17] The alternatives resulting from the others, she was inclined to feel, could be explained only on semantic and stylistic bases, development of which obviously was beyond the scope of her thesis.

Fries' Structure of English, of course, presents the articles as an integral part of the noun; in fact it is through them that the noun is identified. But the problem we are considering here is not one of noun recognition - the knowledge of 'what is a noun' seems to be (like original sin) something we are all born with; students

from a variety of language backgrounds can point to them easily: production of the articles in the proper places is another thing.

Nor do the generative grammarians[19] offer much help since ours is a preoccupation with a problem of performance. Once the sentence is produced it can, of course, be fit into their transformational model by means of ad hoc techniques or otherwise. But it takes little experience with foreigners trying to speak English to make one realize that the ability to handle the determiners is one of the acquired - not one of the innate - traits.

Organization of the elements involved to facilitate that acquisition is the task I hope to make a contribution toward here. And that in turn may bring some insight to problems involved in understanding human language competence. My own conviction is that the general-specific dichotomy is a significant aspect of the 'Je pense' part of Descartes' famous fundamental premise: 'Je pense, donc je suis' (I think therefore I am.) I hope my development will at least bring about some discussion of the subject.

Let us recapitulate a little: In all the material examined, the approach to the problem of the use of the articles '<u>the</u>', '<u>a</u>', '<u>an</u>'seemed to be to divide the nouns into count and non-count[20] usually on the basis of whether there exists a plural form: e.g. <u>pen</u>, <u>pens</u>. Note that by this rule although <u>pen</u> and <u>pencil</u> are countable, <u>chalk</u> is not. Similarly <u>money</u> cannot be counted although <u>dollars</u> can.

The rule that comes out of this division is clear and reliable: in the singular form a count noun must have the or a.[21] And this seems to take care of 17 of the 44 rules I mentioned earlier. But what about the rest? For this we must look to the intent of the speaker.

To return to our[22] woman with all the babies: The demographer might have said either:

Somewhere in the world a woman gives birth...

or Somewhere in the world the woman (not the man of the species) gives birth...

According to our structural rule, woman is the singular form of women, so either the or a must be used. But which? With the singular count nouns, will it be the or a? With the non-count nouns, will it be the or nothing? If we reach for the general-specific rule, how can we explain that

a teacher in a small school is less specific than

the teacher in a small school

or that

coffee from Central America is more general than

the coffee from Central America

Thinking of woman in the abstract,[23] our demographer might even have said:

Somewhere in the world woman gives birth...

and if he were writing, he could carry it a step further into the abstract (to the prototype?) through the device of a capital letter:

Somewhere in the world Woman[24] gives birth...

And, of course, even the abstract can take on the:

Somewhere in the world the Woman gives birth...

We find, then, that there are three ways of making a noun specific, definite, unique, particular:

1. No a or the: John, London, Charity, Woman, etc.
2. Use a: a teacher in a small school, a voter in the U.S., etc.
3. Use the: the world,[25] the President, the sugar in my coffee, the voter in the U.S., the Woman, etc.

Thus we end up with the fact that the, a, ∅ can all be 'specific', we have a difference without a distinction. The question is: specific in relation to what? To arrive at a useful analysis, we must change the tack. Consider:

Corn was planted in summer.

Corn was planted in a summer.

Corn was planted in the summer.

Let us start with consideration of the last one and think in terms of categories: in the summer is selected from a class of differents; i.e. summer versus spring, winter, and fall. The view is microscopic.

In a summer is selected from a class of sames; i.e., a class of 'summers'; this is one out of many summers. There is no distinction to be observed. The view is macroscopic.

in summer is 'summer', the name of the abstract, a category unto itself as specific as are John or London or the Congress, or the sun. Again, the view is macroscopic.

And so, depending on what position your mind has taken; i.e. what category your mind is working from, you can plant corn in summer, in a summer, or in the summer.

This accounts for the fact that the once-upon-a-time rule does not necessarily hold; i.e. 'If you introduce a subject with a the next sentence uses the'.

Consider: 'Once upon a time there was a beautiful maiden who lived in a castle. Now a beautiful maiden in a castle in those days had long golden hair.' Structurally, the last sentence is just as possible as : 'Now the beautiful maiden in the castle in those days had long golden hair.' The sequence of articles a, the does not, then, necessarily prevail - however commonly it does. It would seem rather that it is the speaker's selection from possible categories which determines. In this case, we could analyze that a maiden was selected out of the class of maidens and the the was used to separate it from everyone else one might talk about.

Similarly for the superlative: the sweetest sugar is chosen from a category of varying degrees of sweetness,

[omitted by author]

To summarize: The 44 rules or 38 formulae, it would appear, can be reduced to this:

1. Count nouns in the singular must use <u>the</u> or <u>a</u>.
2. Non-count nouns and plural count nouns may use <u>the</u> or Ø.
3. The choice between <u>the</u>, <u>a</u>, Ø depends on the speaker's position (i.e. the category he is working from) and his view:

   a. Category of sames: <u>a</u> for count
      Ø for non-count

      The view is macroscopic.

   b. Category of differents: <u>the</u> for count and non-count.

      The view is microscopic.

   c. Category of naming the concept: Ø

      The view is macroscopic.

Schematized, No. 3, or the choice between <u>the</u>, <u>a</u>, Ø would appear thus:

		<u>Count</u>	<u>Non-count</u>
I	Category of naming the concept (macroscopic view)	Ø + plural form (pens, women)	Ø (gold, music, London)
IIA	Category of sames (macroscopic view)	a + singular (a pen, a woman)	Ø (gold, music)
B	Category of differents (microscopic view)	the + singular or pl. (the pen, the pens,) (the woman, the women)	the (the gold, the music, the London that I know)

In macro-microscopic terms, we can say that the English speaker is using the macroscopic or general focus when he says 'Corn was planted in summer' or Pens are useful' or 'Women give birth...' and maintains that focus even though he selects one of the discrete items to talk about: 'Corn was planted in a summer' or 'A pen is useful' or 'A woman gives birth...' There are no distinctions to examine. A sample is selected to represent the whole. But the focus becomes microscopic or specific when he intmduces the: 'Corn was planted in the summer', 'The pen is useful', 'The woman gives birth...'

As a practical procedure, then, if we sort out the words like pen (singular count), one of the three possibilities is eliminated: A choice must be made between the or a. (A to indicate that positioning has taken place for the macroscopic view and that a sample has been selected; the to indicate the positioning has taken place for operation of the microscopic focus either on a category as a whole as distinct from other categories: the gold, the pens, the women; or on an item within a category: the pen, the women.)Note that repositioning of the focus is necessary again to the wide angle if women is the subject.) And this takes care of approximately 3/4 of the noun occurrences (to extrapolate from occurrences in Dr. Yotsukura's corpus).[26] The rest is a matter of deciding whether we are talking about simply the name of an entity (non-count, plural count, proper nouns) in which case we use no article unless we wish to turn the microscopic focus on, and then as for the singular count nouns, we choose the.[27] If for some reason of our communication,

we decide to turn a usual non-count word into count, repositioning takes place and as from the category of pens we choose a sample a pen, so from the category, for instance, of wines, we choose a sample a wine. (Wine is suggested by Jesperson's example.)

Some and Any:

To state that some is used in the affirmative statement and any in the negative: ('I want some pencils' 'I don't want any pencils') is to state a structural correlation which although convenient and useful for students of the language cannot be held as "the" rule for English.

When we examine matters more closely, we find that native speakers use any and some in both negative and affirmative statements: 'He didn't want some of the usual advice, he wanted some money'; 'I want anything you will give me but I don't want any trouble'.

And certainly anything is quite affirmative if contrasted with nothing thus: 'I want anything. He wants nothing.'

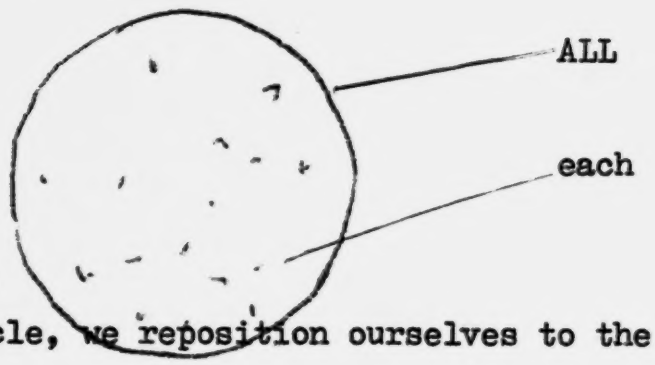
We turn then to the lexical meaning of some as distinct from any. But dictionary definitions are not much help. The Webster's International Third Edition, for instance indicates that some is 'unspecified' and any is 'indeterminate'. Defined in this way, the words seem synonymous; the distinction hardly palpable.

The knot begins to unravel when we consider that the truth of the statement will allow us to say:'There are salt mines somewhere in Michigan' but we cannot say 'There are salt mines anywhere in Michigan'. Similarly: 'Michigan is somewhere in the U.S.' but not 'Michigan is anywhere in the U.S.' In other words, meaningwise,

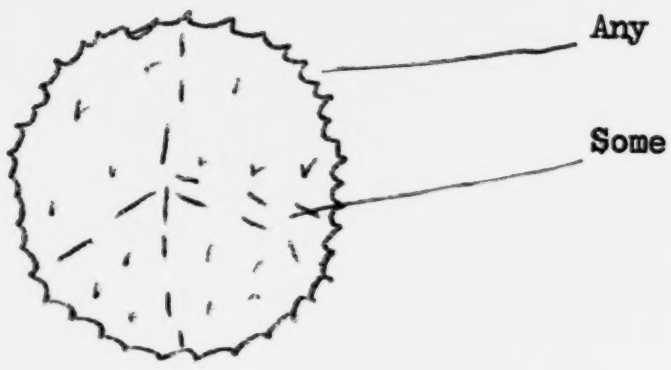
if it is anywhere, it is somewhere but not viceversa: If it is somewhere, it is not necessarily anywhere. Thus, any is more inclusive than some.

It seems, then, that what we are working with is a category of non-specific. And that within this category there are units whose relations in turn are that of general and specific: general wholes in relation to specific parts. Again, the speaker must make a choice in the position and then in the scope.

To understand this more clearly, we set the non-specific category in a hierarchy which includes the specific category of all[28]/every, and each. Let us think in terms of circles on circles. For the bottom circle: Our position is specific as we view each bounded by all. The view is macroscopic. If, however, we should wish to examine each individually, we would adjust the view to microscopic:



Superimposing another circle, we reposition ourselves to the non-specific and all projects itself as any. Again we are using macroscopic view. Narrowing our focus, we pick out parts of any as some:



Thus each whole becomes in turn a part:

Whole		Part
All	is to	any; as
any	is to	some; as
some	is to	each.

In this way may be explained how some can serve as part for non-count: ('I want bread. I want some bread.') as well as plural for a in count-noun situations ('I want a pen. I want some pens.')

Now, let us adjust our view from macroscopic to microscopic as we order the elements thus: all/every

any

some

each

As we proceed down the scale narrowing the focus, we move in the direction of a more restricted view. Proceeding up the scale and widening the focus, the view is broadened. Consider:

	Specific	Non-specific
What do you want to do tonight? Answer:	Nothing	
or:		Something
or:		Anything
or:	Everything	

Thus, if 'Somewhere in the world a woman is producing a baby every thirty seconds', this results in fewer babies than if we said that this occurs 'anywhere' in the world, and certainly fewer than if we said 'Everywhere'.

Defined as such, the negative and affirmative constructions of the sentence take care of themselves.

Also, defined in this way, it is easy to understand that specific some stands at times for the more inclusive, general whole any: 'Is somebody home?' or 'Is anybody home?': 'I want some bread.' or 'I want any bread.'

Amd yet, when it is necessary, it is possible to make a distinction: 'Michigan is somewhere but not anywhere in the U.S.'

Through repositioning and appropriate adjustment of the scope, we can in turn regard each of the various parts as wholes. The language device is the word of:

I want all of any books you have.
any of any
some of any
each of any

Give me all of some apples left in that basket.
any of some
some of some
each of some

Do you need all of each dollar I earn?
any of each
some of each
each of each

From the practical point of view of teaching everyday usage, lessons should be set up to indicate that in the affirmative sentence, we usually speak - at least in object position - in terms of parts ('I want some pencils') rather than in terms of the whole ('I want any pencils.')

A neat teaching trick - and one that works with the 'naturalness' of the language - appears to be one used in Sweden: The test for

whether their one form någen (n:något) should become English some or English any is the English word whatever (Swedish vem som helst; n: vilket som helst). Thus: 'I want any bread whatever.' Otherwise, någen(något) becomes some: 'I want some bread.'

Similarly in French, where the forms de and quelque may both be one of two in English (some or any). Testing with whatever (French n'importe or que ca soit) should make the learning of the inclusive nature of English any simple enough.

- - - - - - - - - - - - - -

The idea of establishing categories or sets is not new. It is as old as grammar itself and even in the lexical field, the concept of class and sets is at least as old as Roget's Thesaurus. And yet what theoretical model do we have for teaching a Thai student that 'farming may not be the spine of a country although it may be its backbone', or an Italian that 'a man is never a column in his community although he may be a pillar', or a Japanese that when a woman goes on a diet it is not because she wants to be 'lean and raw-boned'?

Noam Chomsky on p.77 of Aspects of the Theory of Syntax refers to the need for 'concete proposals... (which) ... involve techniques of sub-classifying based on distributional similarities.'. What I have tried to develop here is the possibility of using the general and specific concept as a criterion for establishing a set or category out of which the individual item in a set can be referred to either in its relation to the other items in the set or as an

entity unto itself with the possibility of becoming part of, or set in contrast to, another set. From the point of view of the discipline of psychology, the unitization theory of Miller and its hierarchical adjustment by Mandler would seem to provide us a model.

But whatever it is that is involved here, and however ultimately it is found best handled, the element we are dealing with is surely the one that helps us to evaluate how appropriate the husband's arithmetic is as he watches his chubby wife on the bathroom scales happy because she has lost six pounds.

'If I add correctly,' he says, 'that makes 936 pounds you have lost since we have been married.'

In the last analysis, the question seems to be: When is it appropriate to talk about the part? - When about the whole?

FOOTNOTES

[1] In short, a taxonomic view.

[2] In terms of the language classroom, the use of a procedure having such fruitful results in other areas of human knowledge would seem to offer certain advantages of economy in the overall education process. Through its use, also, it would seem that the role of the brain's cognitive activity should be increased in the language learning process without having to sacrifice the efficiency which we have learned to appreciate in 'systematized' presentations.

[3] Mandler, George. 'Organization and Memory', Psychology of Learning and Motivation, Vol. I, Academic Press Inc., N.Y., p. 328

[4] Ibid.

[5] Ibid., p. 329. 'Except possibly in the sense of immediate or primary memory..., it is questionable whether the distinction between rote memory and other kinds can be maintained today...'

[6] Ibid., p. 369. '...if such limits do in fact exist, they provide some interesting basis for further investigation into the limits on the size of natural language vocabularies. On a highly speculative note, two suggestions might be entertained. First, the organization of any single coherent natural vocabulary may be limited to the value of 5^5 items. It is enticing to note that such divergent vocabularies as the basic sign language of the deaf, the ideographic vocabulary taught to the Japanese school child, and the basic vocabulary taught in foreign language schools all tend to fall at about 1500-2000 items, a value nicely between 5^4 and 5^5.'

[7] Ibid., p. 337.

[8] Ibid., p. 371.

[9] Piaget, Jean. Six Etudes de Psychologie. Editions Gonthier S.A., Genève. p. 33.

Fundamentally, is there anything irreconcilable between those who believe that human intelligence is qualitative and those who conceive of it as quantitative? Are not qualities quantifiable?

[10] cf., Reports on the performance of lower-class, retarded pre-schoolers in the Ypsilanti, Michigan, Public Schools, by Constance K. Kamii and Norma L. Radin.

[11] cf. Whorf, Benjamin L., 'An American Indian Model of the Universe.' The Philosophy of Time. Ed., Richard M. Gale. Doubleday and Co., N.Y., 1967, pp. 378-387.

[12] K. L. Pike, of course, uses 'focus' as a technical term. cf., Pike, K.L., Language in Relation to a Unified Theory of the Structure of Human Behavior. Summer Institute of Linguistics, Glendale, California, 1954. (Preliminary Edition Part I.) p. 55

[13] This seems to be the same phenomenon that allows us to imagine ourselves in a garden with a unicorn although we have never seen a unicorn and we have been told that there is no such thing.

[14] This is what I attempt to demonstrate in succeeding pages. But to anticipate:

Example of a concept macroscopically viewed: Gold, Pens, and a pen; the last selected as a sample representing the whole.

Example of a concept microscopically viewed: the pen (not the pencil nor any other pen in the category of pens); the pens (not the pencils nor any other of the possible categories); the gold (not the iron nor any other of the possible categories).

[15] Robinson, Lois, Guided Writing and Free Writing. Harper and Row, New York, 1967. pp. 37-45.

[16] Yotsukura, Sayo; A Structural Analysis of the Usage of the Articles in English. Dissertation, University of Michigan, 1963.

[17] Ibid.,p. 128

[18] Fries, C.C., The Structure of English. Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1952. p. 89.

[19] cf., for instance, Jacobs, Roderick A., and Rosenbaum, Peter S., English Transformational Grammar. Blaisdell Publishing Co., Waltham, Massachusetts, 1968. pp. 44 and 98.

[20] Variously called common, proper; mass, collective, abstract.

[21] Dr. Yotsukura reported that only two out of her list of one hundred and four nouns can be used without a or an. They are gold and music. Yotsukura, op. cit., p. 64.

[22] Note that here I use a device which relieves the student from having to make a choice between the or a; viz., a traditionally-called possessive adjective. A traditionally-called demonstrative adjective (this, that; these, those) works in a similar fashion, as do the

so-called partitives, and numbers (many women, two women). Cf., for instance, Fries 'determiners', p. 89.

Except perhaps for the partitives, all of the determiners mentioned here would fall under the heading of what I am calling 'specific' indicating a microscopic adjustment. In the demographer account, it was the switch of the adjustment which causes the confusion - from macro to micro, from a woman to that woman.

[23] Concerning the use of terms to represent the abstract, it is interesting to note that in Sweden in the current struggle for sexual equality, it is contended that the church has fostered sexual discrimination because nowhere in the Bible does it say that women have souls: only 'man' has a soul, according to the Bible, it is said. In the Svenska Dagbladet for Wednesday, April 24, 1968, appeared a Lutheran cleric's explanation that the controversy here stems from a question of translation that had been discussed in 548: viz., whether the Latin masculine word homo could be applied to 'woman.' The decision based on examples of its use in the Vulgate had been in the affirmative.

[24] A N.Y. Times Music Reviewer on January 19, 1969, makes his point in this way. He states that Wagner's sex in 'Tristan and Isolde' is primal, that '...he does not deal with man and woman; he deals with Man and Woman. ...in 'Der Rosenkavalier' [on the other hand] there are no Jungian archetypes, only the human condition; and instead of a monumental

'Liebestod' we get a bittersweet and haunt̲ingly beautiful trio that in effect tells us that life will go on as it alwas has gone on.'

[25] cf. 'the world' in the account of the demographer supra.

[26] Yotsukura, p. 64. Seventy-eight out of the group of one hundred and four nouns she worked with could not stand in subject position in the singular without an article.

[27] A special aspect of the problem are those nouns which change meaning depending on whether they are count or non-count: e.g., paper, a paper.

[28] The negative of all is none or nothing. But it is a little difficult to work in an audio-visual way with nothing, so we are forced to leave it aside for now. It would simply be the absence of what we have here.

I reserve every for count entities and for our purpose here, use all which refers to both count and non-count. Note that every is never used as a pronoun.